DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 112 502 EA 007 537

AUTHOR Grassie, McCrae C.
TITLE Participatory Planning in Education. IIEP Occasional Papers No. 36.
INSTITUTION United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). International Inst. for Educational Planning.
REPORT NO Occas-Pap-36
PUB DATE Oct 74
NOTE 32p.
AVAILABLE FROM IIEP Publications, 7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix, 75016 Paris, France ($1.00, distribution charges)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.76 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Role; *Cooperative Planning; Decision Making; *Educational Administration; *Educational Planning; Educational Policy; Models; Participant Involvement; *Policy Formation

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the separation of planning activities from administration and analyzes the interrelationships between planning and policy-making within the educational enterprise. The paper investigates in some detail the relationships between organizational levels and the stages of planning and shows where consensus is required in the planning process and where consultation and participation are appropriate. The paper puts forward some suggestions as to why consultation and participation are not more characteristic in the work of planners, and proposes a model structure for educational policy, administration, and planning. (Author)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

ED112502

IIEP Occasional Papers No. 36

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL BY MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Unesco: IIEP
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

PARTICIPATORY PLANNING IN EDUCATION

McCrae C. Grassie

EA 007 537

Unesco: International Institute for
Educational Planning

IIEP Occasional Papers

The studies in this series include papers contributed by the Institute's staff, visiting fellows, interns and consultants. Some of the studies have originally been prepared as part of the training programme of the Institute; others have previously appeared as working papers for the Institute's seminars and symposia. All of them, in the Institute's views, are of sufficient interest to merit being re-issued and distributed on a wider scale.

By their very nature these papers are less formal and have not been given the full editorial processing customary for IIEP 'official publications'.

The opinions expressed in these papers are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the Institute. The use, adaptation or reproduction, in whole or in part, of these papers is limited to institutions and persons specifically authorized by IIEP.

$1.00

Printed in France by the
International Institute for Educational Planning
7-9, rue Eugène-Delacroix, 75016 Paris
October 1974

CONTENTS

Introduction	7
Planning as the responsibility of the administrator	7
Policy-making, administration and planning in the educational enterprise	11
Consultation, participation and consensus as components of planning	19
Some drawbacks to participation and consultation	23
A participative structure for discussion	27
Bibliography	33

INTRODUCTION

This paper first examines briefly the separation of planning activities, but not responsibilities, from administration and second, and at greater length, the interrelationships between planning, and policy-making within the educational enterprise. Integral to this examination is the concept of needs because it is their expression by the people who experience them, or their definition by those whose function it is to study them, that direct much of the work of policy-maker, administrator and planner. There is a value judgment implicit in that statement and it would be as well to make explicit at the outset other assumptions which will underlie the analysis.

Planning takes place in a social, political and organizational context which has a history. That history cannot be left aside by planner, administrator or policy-maker without risk to the success of their work, no matter how much they would perhaps like to do so in order to design the system anew. The current stage of development of the organization and the existing state of its social and political context provide the locus and the limitations for their work. Modifications and improvements, no matter how well planned, must be rooted in these contexts or remain largely unfulfilled. The failure of plans, in which much effort and finance may have been invested, can tempt the policy-maker into greater and greater intervention in the lives of the people whom the plans were intended to serve in the first place.

Whilst it is true that, in some fields, health for instance, planned improvements must often be given preference over people, it is more difficult to make such a case for educational plans, basic though education may be to social and economic progress. Fortunately for the educational planner, the benefits accruing from education to the individual are sufficiently clearly recognized in developed and developing countries alike, for the problem seldom to present itself in this form, but it is as well that the planner and his politico-administrative masters should keep the possibility that it may do so to the forefront of their consciousness.

Planning as the responsibility of the administrator

Planning has long been recognized as one of the responsibilities of the administrator. As he has seen his task, it has had as its main components both looking back to see what was done in circumstances similar to those he is now facing and, also, looking forward to see what might be the consequences in the future of action he is proposing to take now. His concern, in other words, has been to look ahead for problems and difficulties that might arise and to try, by making decisions now, to prevent them from arising. The time dimension is important in considering his work - he looks to the future but can act only in the present, using the past as a guide. His time

range, traditionally, was limited; he was concerned more with the shorter term future, and it was in the recent past that he more often sought clues for the decisions he had to make now. His was, basically, a practical not a theoretical, orientation. What the administrator did was to monitor the operations of the organization so that it continued to do the job for which it had been set up. As difficulties arose, the administrator dealt with them in ways his experience suggested as being most likely to ensure that they would not recur. If an organizational process looked as if it might run into difficulties, the administrator took preventive action, appropriate in the circumstances in his view, to the situation. He learnt that no decision stood alone but was part of an ongoing stream of decisions, and further, that each one had repercussions on other processes within the organization.

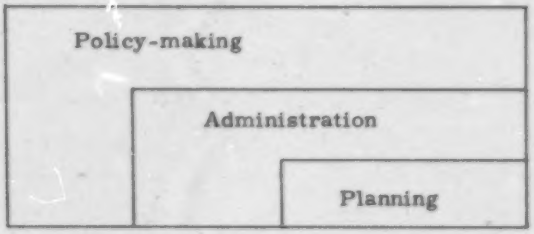
Planning, in the sense of exercising foresight, was essential if the enterprise were to continue to be able to accomplish its task. Every act of the administrator could be seen as a planning act for it always had in it this element of foresight. It was with an eye to the future that the administrator decided on the disposition of resources, and on their control and co-ordination. No plan might exist on paper, but he had to report on progress, presumably progress towards some goal that he, at least, had in mind and it was for the accomplishment of this goal that he recruited staff and had them trained. His function was to administer the organization in accordance with a plan whether it was formalized in writing or not, because if there were no plan, there was no focus for his activity. When it is said that the administrator makes decisions about the decision-making process, what is implied is that he makes decisions in relation to a plan of action. Planning, seen in this light, is not just one function of the administrator, but is the function which gives rise to all the others. It is the function to which all his other functions are subservient.

More recently, as organizations have become larger and more complex in order to be able to serve an increasingly turbulent environment, the planning function has more and more had to become an activity for specially trained and skilled experts, but the responsibility for planning has remained the administrator's. He sees that it is carried out and that its products are relayed in the form of advice to the policy-makers. Their decisions the administrator then implements and monitors, again with the aid of experts with the appropriate skills. The administrator has not, however, in the process, become a mere channel through which plans pass to the policy-makers and policies return to planners for detailed programmes of action to be worked out, implemented and evaluated. Because he remains responsible for planning, and accountable for keeping the organization directed towards its task, his advice to the policy-makers includes not only the fruits of the planner's work but his own assessment of these fruits in the light of his knowledge of the 'style' of the organization and of its competence, at the time, to carry them out. This organizational expertise, which is the administrator's peculiar contribution at this stage, is also a fundamentally important ingredient of the programmes eventually devised for executing the policy decisions.

Planning as the responsibility of the administrator

Policy-making, administration and planning are not co-terminous but are closely interdependent activities, so close indeed that, in practice, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish the one from the other. Figure 1 illustrates these interrelationships.

Figure 1. Interrelationships between planning, administration, and policy-making



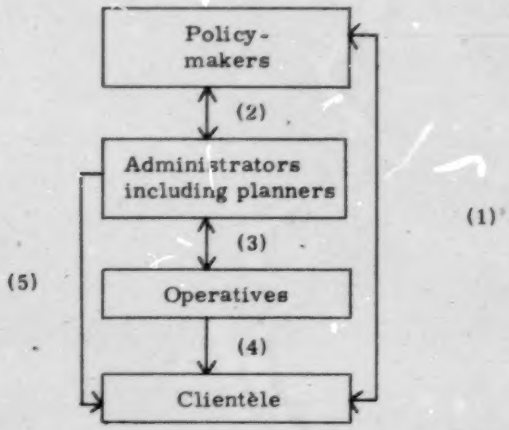
Planning is shown as a sub-activity of administration, and administration of policy-making. Policies are partly determined by the interaction of planner and administrator, but their organizational activities are wholly determined by policies. Difficult though it may be sometimes, in practice, to separate the processes one from another, they are conceptually distinct and recognition of these distinctions is vital for an understanding of the subtleties of organization. Policy-making is the process by which the resources of the organization and the needs of its clientèle are articulated through the expression of broad aims and the laying down of guidelines as to the means by which these aims are to be met. Only when policy has been enunciated can the resources of the organization be legitimately committed. Administration attends to the committal of resources, that is, to their mobilization and control for the attainment of goals by more clearly defined procedures. In this last task, administration is strengthened and its effectiveness enhanced, by its having recourse to planning skills. These skills of the planner are partly deployed in drawing up detailed programmes for action related now to more immediate and measurable objectives. The flow of authorization is one way, from policy to planning, but the flow of influence operates in the reverse direction as well. In working out programmes and in evaluating current policies, the planner becomes aware of their deficiencies and defects, which he draws to the attention of the administrator who, in turn, reports them to the policy-makers with appropriate recommendations for changes in policies or for the adoption of new ones.

These three activities, planning, administration and policy-making, do not exhaust the range of activities of an organization. There are activities aimed at catering directly to the needs of the clientèle, the activities, indeed, by which the organisation is known. It is these activities, and the resources they require, which policy authorizes the administrator, with the aid of the planner, to direct, supervise and evaluate in order to meet effectively, and in some order of priority, the requirements of the clientèle. Policy is most importantly an authorizing statement. Until it has been issued, organizational resources cannot be expended. It is the responsibility of the policy-makers to keep themselves apprised of these requirements and to decide the order in which they shall be met, and how they will be met. The 'sensory apparatus'

of the policy-makers has always included the administrators. Now it includes also the planners. More recently, the inclination has strengthened to include the operatives as well. The environments in which organizations have to work, and their internal operations too, are so complicated that contributions from personnel on all levels have to be sought. Thus the data necessary for determining policy may emerge from any level of the organization, but a change in direction, or in the application of resources, may not be legitimately started till that determination has been made by the topmost level of it. In practice, on the basis of the trust which tends to develop between administration and policy-makers due to their dependence on each other, departures from existing policy may be set in train by decision of the administrator but such departures are always reported later to the policy-makers for confirmation.

Actions of this kind by the administrators tend to blur the distinctions between their functions and the policy-makers' and to lead to the mistaken claim that administrators make policy. They do not, even though at times they may seem to do so. Policy is determined only by the policy-makers who represent the owners of the enterprise, whether these owners be the public or shareholders. Another practice which serves to blur the distinction between policy-making and administration is the tendency for policy-makers first to approve the adoption of some policy matter in principle only. The action authorized by such a decision is administrative/planning action. The remainder of the organization continues to function as before until such time as the administrators, with the help of the planners, have reported on alternative means of implementing the proposed policy, and the policy-makers have decided which means to adopt in practice. The notions that plans create policy instead of policy plans grows as a result of not understanding completely the ways in which policy-makers are forced to operate in conditions of great uncertainty. Figure 2 illustrates the policy-making process.

Figure 2. The policy process



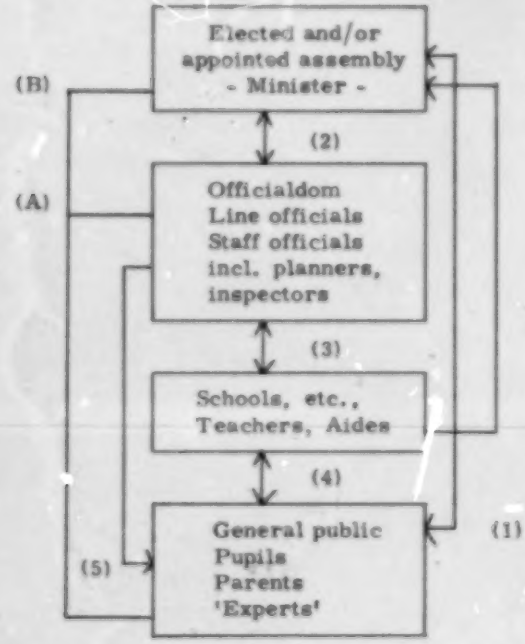
Policy-makers and clientèle interact (1) and some of the needs of the latter are fed into the organization. The combined activities of administrators, planners and operatives (2, 3, 4) result in these needs being met. The monitoring process ensures that information flows up (4, 3, 2) as well as down the organization. In addition, the planners study directly (5) the needs of the clientèle in relation to current policy and offer (2) suggestions for new, or for changes in, policy to the policy-makers through the administrators. Not infrequently, as a result of the work of the planners, the policy-makers have information of needs of which the clientèle is, itself, only dimly aware and they find themselves in the position of advising the clientèle as to what they should be demanding of the organization. Anticipation, persuasion, decision, implementation, evaluation - these constitute the continuous cycle of processes by means of which an organization is able to provide a continually improving service to its clientèle. The clientèle is not usually one body with a common view of its needs but, more often, consists of a multiplicity of groups each with its own peculiar view of what is required and of priorities. It is the difficult task of the policy-maker, thereafter, to decide "who gets what and when".

To this point, the discussion has been in general terms, applicable to most organizations. In the following section, and in the remainder of the paper, the focus is on the educational enterprise.

Policy-making, administration and planning in the educational enterprise

Figure 3 is the general model given in Figure 2 translated into a terminology more readily recognizable as 'educational'.

Figure 3. The policy process in the educational enterprise



Here the policy-makers are the elected representatives of the people, or are appointed by these representatives or they may be a combination of both. There is a political head of the enterprise - a Minister of Education, for example - who can be held accountable for the actions of the department, including teachers. If these actions are not in keeping with policy, he can lose his post or his seat, or both. The administrators are shown as line officials, usually appointed for a career and guaranteed security, who are responsible to the political head for the work of his department. They range from these with direct responsibility for policy advice to those whose functions are executive only. The planners are included in the staff officials though they may be line officials seconded for special duties. Increasingly, they are specially trained personnel located in the policy department, perhaps, or in a central planning department, or in the department responsible for finance. There are a number of possibilities. The service, itself, is of course provided through the schools and other educational establishments, where the work is done by teachers, sometimes with the help of aides of different kinds. The clientèle is the general public, which consists of a number of special publics. Pupils, parents, and a group called here experts, have been shown. Even these special publics can be further sub-divided, for not all pupils or parents have the same expectations of the system, and certainly the experts have each their own notion of what the system should be providing and of how it should be done. All the members of the organization are themselves members of the general public, and can be regarded as rather a special special public. In some of their extra-organizational rôles, as parents of school-age children, for example, they learn much about the effectiveness of current policies from the point of view of those whom the policies are intended to serve.

In the ideal system, demands flow in from the general public to the policy-makers (1) and these demands are fed into the enterprise as policies to be administered, programmed and acted on (2, 3, 4). In practice, the system does not operate like this. The tendency is for policy developments to be generated in the organization itself, particularly in the administrative part of it (2). A second source of policy inspiration is to be found in the experts within the general public, who make known in various ways to the administration (A) and to the Minister (B) what they think of what is happening and what they think ought to be happening. Sometimes, experts are called in by the Minister to provide advice additional to that which he receives from his officials, or as a check on their advice. The Minister is not normally a specialist in education, and his tenure of office may be a brief one, and so he may feel himself to be at a disadvantage vis-à-vis his officials and in need of an external source of advice which will enable him better to judge the quality of officials' advice. This external advice tends to be concerned more with the political acceptability of proposals, but it can be about policy content. 1/ Some of these experts find their way on to official committees of enquiry or government commissions, from whose deliberations

1/ Castle, Barbara, Mandarin Power, Sunday Times, London, 10 June 1973.

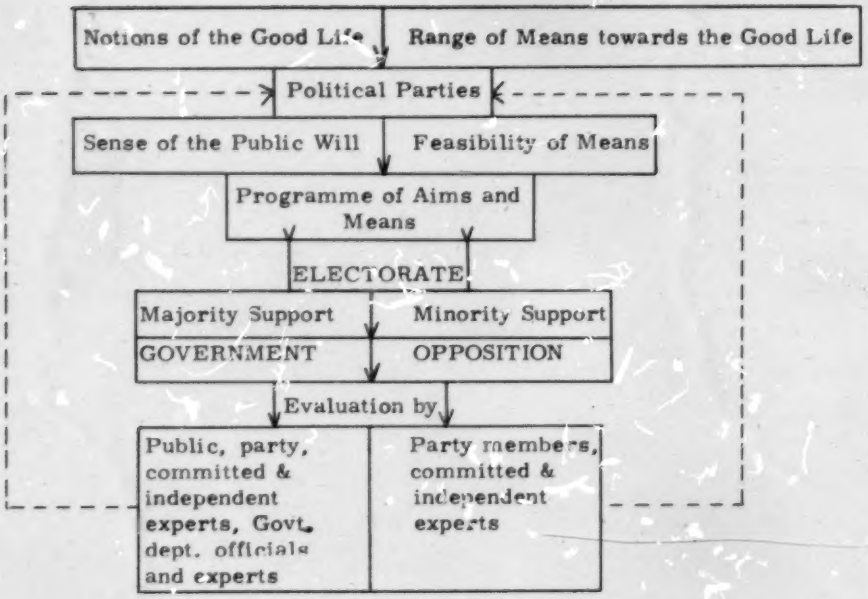
major changes in direction often emerge. Teachers, through their unions, may approach the Minister or members of the legislative assembly with policy proposals (C) but, more usually, these approaches are in the form of reactions and objections to policies after they have been announced. This is a matter to which the analysis will return. In their organizational capacities, teachers will operate through the normal channels of the inspectorate and the line officials. A third source of policy suggestions are the studies conducted by staff specialists into the effectiveness of current policy, and into the emerging needs of the clientèle.

From this mass of information, some of it hard data, some of it no more than hunch, feeling and unsubstantiated opinion, educational policy is evolved. It is a judicious blend of what the politician estimates the public 'will stand', what the administrator considers the system can handle, and what the different experts advise as being essential. No matter the source of the initiative, it is impossible for policy to be implemented without the administrator being involved and, thus, extremely unusual for it to be decided without the administrator being asked to judge proposals and to recommend to the Minister what he thinks should be done. The skill of the politician is much used in persuading the public if, indeed, persuasion is required at all, that policy arrived at in this way is in its best interests.

The negligible parts played in this process by teachers and by the consumers of the service, i.e. the parents and pupils, calls for further detailed consideration. These are the data flowing along arrows (1) and (C) in the model in Figure 3. The data coming up the former arrow is, theoretically at least, the major energizing influence of the entire system, and that coming along arrow (C) should be of great formative significance. How the public's wishes contributes to policy formation is taken up first and requires a brief excursion into the field of politics. Figure 4 is a simple model of the functioning of the political system.

The assumption is that in any society there exist what have been called here 'Notions of the Good Life' together with a range of ideas on how the good life may be brought within the reach of all. These notions cover the values, beliefs, ambitions and hopes of society from the simplest to the most highly developed systems of the philosophers and thinkers. Around different orders of these values and different means of giving them practical expression, groupings of like-minded people form who are prepared to argue that society ought to be managed in accordance with their views. These are the origins of the political parties, each of which proceeds to develop a set of proposals or promises, consistent with its fundamental values and principles, but coloured, also, by its sense of what the public is ready for at that moment in time and by its estimate of the feasibility of the different proposals. This is what it presents to the voting public at the appropriate time, and according to how the electorate casts its votes, a party, or coalition of parties, forms the government. It goes ahead, then, in so far as it can, to put its proposals into effect through legislation and regulation. Because it has the backing of the majority of the electorate, or most seats in the legislative assembly - and these are not necessarily the same - its actions are legitimated. Its proposals become legitimated policies for government action. The process does not stop there. As policies are implemented, members of the

Figure 4. Model of the political system



legislative assembly keep close watch over reactions to them at the grass-roots level in their constituencies, and as the policies pass through the legislative process, they are subjected to the criticism of the members, and even before they reach the assembly, to critical evaluation by departmental officials and experts. Independent experts outside the governmental institutions, also, sit in judgment on them. Within the confines of the party machinery itself, the search continually goes on for improved and additional means of moving society nearer the enjoyment of the Good Life. The defeated party, or parties, also subject their proposals to critical analysis with a view to enhancing their public appeal. Missing from their evaluative machinery are, of course, the government experts and officials.

With something so complex as social policy and planning carried into effect through government action, it is not surprising that so much has been left to political and other experts. In the final analysis, however, what is important is acceptability to a majority of the electorate, whether or not they understand the issues in all their complexity. Membership of a legislative assembly is an insecure career at best, and this insecurity remains the surest guarantee that the member will remain sensitive to the needs of his constituents. Should he forget the source of his authority, he may easily lose it altogether. Although it is uncommon, carefully worked out and costed plans can be shelved on the grounds that they are politically inexpedient, 2/ that is, that they are likely to result in a net shift of voters to another party. Decisions of this nature on any particular proposal are for the Minister to make, or if he has some doubts, for the government as a whole, but it is a duty of the administrator to try to ensure that proposals reaching the Minister from the department are not politically embarassing. Similarly, he must try to ensure that the Minister does not impose on the department policies which it is, physically or otherwise, incapable of implementing at the time. On the one hand, the administrator risks alienating his expert planning staff, and on the other, offending his political master. As well, he cannot risk the accusation that he is frustrating the will of the people, or pushing beyond what has been legitimated by their vote. If such an issue arises, it is invariably the planner who has to give way. The politician, too, must exercise judgment of a high quality. He cannot get too far ahead of the wishes of his constituents, nor is it his function merely to reflect these wishes. Leadership of public opinion is one of his most important duties.

The politico-administrative system according to this version, is rather a finely tuned instrument geared to public opinion, and yet seeming to operate independently of it during periods between elections. Its most obvious inputs are demands by interest groups of various kinds, many of them quite contradictory, and appeals, reports and criticisms from interested experts and the media. Its conversion process, in turn, is in the hands of other experts, such as departmental officials and planners. The general public, in whose name the whole enterprise is conducted, seems uninvolved except for the casting of a vote every now and again. However, because demands, no matter their origin, can be got through into the conversion process to emerge eventually as government policy directives only by being accepted by a political party, and because this acceptance depends on the measure of public support they are likely to generate, it can be argued that the gearing is set by the wishes of the public. Nearer to reality, perhaps, is that the gearing is set by the politicians' estimate of the public's readiness to accept, or to be persuaded to accept, the developments incorporated in the demands.

2/ Foster, C. D., Politics, finance and the rôle of economics, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1971.

The political system of which Figure 4 is a model, is clearly of the western parliamentary type. The model can be applied, however, to a political party as a system, for a party is really a coalition of interests. What is accepted as party policy depends on which grouping within the party is the more influential for the time being. Left-wing, right-wing and centre are descriptive terms as applicable within a party as they are to the parties themselves. In one party democracies, the one party contains within itself something akin to a government and opposition. Differences of opinion are reported from such countries sufficiently frequently for this interpretation to have some validity. It is worth noting that politicking against the policy of the one party, outside the confines of the party itself, tends to be castigated and punished as being against the interests of the people. Legitimation of policy in these systems, too, is by reference to the interests and will of the people. Even the charisma of the 'dictator' is very much in the eyes of the public, and as long as he can maintain the reality, or the illusion, that he is the embodiment of the hopes and wishes of the people his decisions bear the stamp of legitimacy. It would be naive to believe that in the different conditions discussed, this means the same. The important thing is that, in all these conditions, legitimacy for what governments do is sought, or is expressed, in terms of the public will. The public is not one mass in complete agreement on what it wants but is a plurality, or at least a duality of interests, and it is the existence of these differences that keeps alive the possibilities of politics, and the possibilities for change.

This brief, and necessarily oversimplified account of the operation of the political system, was undertaken to demonstrate how it is that the clientèle is involved in the policy process. As well, it makes the equally important point that the planner is very much a part of a political process. So far, it has left unexplained the small part played by teachers in the creation of policy which largely conditions their working lives and it has said nothing of any part played at all by the system's special publics - its pupils and their parents. Nor has it questioned whether participation through casting a vote every three to five years or so, is satisfactory. It has, both implicitly and explicitly, stressed the tremendous power which has accumulated in the hands of the administrators over the years as the service has grown in response to the increasingly varied demands made on it by the public. This power has been a mounting cause of concern to teachers, public and politicians, and even to Ministers. Stratagems like the consultative committee and the ombudsman have been suggested or resorted to, to attempt to quiet the concern of teacher and public respectively. Politicians have demanded more and better staff and research facilities for themselves, and the right to question officials in select committees enquiring into the work of departments. Ministers have recruited outside help, as has been indicated earlier.

Despite all that has been said about the sensitivity of the system to the needs and aspirations of the public, what it operates on is the administrator's interpretation of these needs and aspirations. No matter where a demand first makes itself felt on, or in, the system, it is the administration which colours it, before passing it as advice with recommendations to the policy-makers. When policy is decided, it is the administration which steers its implementation and

receives, eventually, reports on its success or failure. This accretion of power has not been sought and it would be difficult to demonstrate that it has been abused. Indeed, education as a service, has a quality about it which seems to impart to its administrators an acute awareness of their responsibilities to the public. Their power, and it is power rather than influence because to a very great extent, they can bend the other parts of the system to their will, has its origins in the knowledge and information about the system and the service that flow continually and naturally to them in their position between the policy-makers and the remainder of the system, and of course, the clientèle. It is extremely difficult for any other members to compete with them on the basis of their more limited knowledge and, for outsiders, even expert outsiders, it is almost impossible. The stratagems which have so far been adopted to counterbalance this power have scarcely succeeded in making the slightest impression on it. The administrators do seem to know best what is good for the service and to use their knowledge, and the power it gives them, to promote developments which seem to them to be best. Planning, with its esoteric skills and techniques, has, as an adjunct to administration, had the effect of increasing the knowledge and strengthening that power vis-à-vis the other parts of the system, and its clientèle.

The reactions of teachers and public have been predictable. Teachers have become dissatisfied with the limited extension of their influence permitted under a consultative system and are demanding real participation in the policy for, and the planning of, the system.[3/] Sections of the public have become conscious of the system's inability fully to meet their needs as they see them, themselves, and under the guidance of equally disgruntled experts have set up so-called progressive schools outside the system altogether.[4/] A case has been made, and has been finding favour among some intellectuals, that society can do without schools of the kind with which it has been provided.[5/] In some areas, the local communities have taken over the schools and have endeavoured to develop them into community schools in the full sense of the term, community.[6/] It is not that the administrators and planners have failed to provide schools and teachers in sufficient quantity - given the conditions, they have succeeded remarkably well - but what goes on inside them has seemed inappropriate to the needs of the pupils and unrelated to the backgrounds from which many of them come and in which many of them will continue to live after they leave school. Some pupils have shown their disillusionment by staying away, and of all things 'schools for truants' have been established, again outside the formal system.[7/] One very large system is

---

3/ See, for example, Teacher Participation, a pamphlet produced by the National Union of Teachers in England, or An Education Commission, a booklet produced by the Queensland Teachers' Union, Brisbane.

4/ These progressive schools have appeared in, for example, Brisbane and Melbourne, in the last few years.

5/ Reimer, E., The School is Dead, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middx., England, 1971.

6/ Ornstein, A.C., Administrative/community Organisation of Metropolitan Schools, Phi Delta Kappan, June, 1973.

7/ A few of these 'schools' are to be found in London.

now considering how it can use its resources to help such schools without endangering the relationships which have developed between staff and pupils or influencing the nature of the work they do.[8/]

These movements on the part of the clientèle are, by no means as yet, widespread. The publicity they have received can be misleading. They have, however, appeared in what have hitherto been regarded as highly developed systems with access to the best administrative and planning skills that money can buy. Teacher militancy, too, has been most noticeably associated with these same systems and has been accorded, also, more than its due share of publicity, thus making it seem a much more universal phenomenon than it is. It would be unwise to conclude under the influence of all the publicity, that the school systems in developed countries are disintegrating and that there is a general crisis of confidence in the ability of administrators and planners to solve the problems with which they are faced. It would be equally unwise to dismiss these warning signs altogether and particularly is this true of those responsible for less well developed systems.

The cause of the trouble has been traced here to the immense power bestowed on administrative and planning personnel as the enterprise has responded to an entirely new order of challenges with concepts and methodologies fashioned for less turbulent times. This is undoubtedly unfair to the many farsighted servants of the system who have responded in less traditional ways. It is in the nature of their responses, however, that solutions will be sought. No doubt, too, there are other equally important causes of the difficulties to be found in society itself, but these fall outside the power of the educational system to alter directly, or at all, and the analysis is confined to the more limited range of possibilities open to the educational enterprise to adopt. As the planners have been cast here in the rôle of the forward scouts of the system whose findings help significantly to determine the route to be followed next, their functions would seem to require redefinition. As it is in the hands of the line officials that an excess of power has accumulated, their operations merit attention. It would seem appropriate, in other words, to seek structural remedies for what have been defined as structural faults.

8/ I.L.E.A. officials have this problem under active consideration. They acknowledge that the children attending these schools are breaking the law in not attending the regular schools provided for them. They accept, also, that the irregular schools which they are attending voluntarily must be meeting some of their needs. It is doubtful if the schools could be recognised as efficient on the usual criteria as they lack many of the physical requirements demanded. But their task would be easier if they had access to more funds - this much is obvious to all.

Consultation, Participation and Consensus as Components of Planning

Figure 5 on the following page, reflects the analysis which has been made. Regretfully, it looks rather complicated, but to simplify it further would be to omit basic activities and important lines of influence. The figure consists of the model of the system already given in Figure 3 this time, however, with the pupils shown separately from the remainder of the clientèle. Surrounding this model is the planning process shown in the normally accepted stages. Each stage is an activity depicted by an arrow, with the title of the stage at the tail not the head. The system is assumed to be an ongoing one with the planning process, also, ongoing. Thus, the model is entered at the monitoring process, where actual achievements are judged against desired outcomes. If dissonance is revealed, then the nature of the problem underlying it has to be defined, and a range of plans with costs and benefits drawn up, and so on through the remaining stages, till the monitoring activity is reached once more. If there is no dissonance, the programmes that have been devised to implement the chosen plan continue to be implemented.

Connecting the different planning activities to the various levels of the organisation are dotted lines, some heavy, some light. The heavy ones indicate contributions to the activity which have importance for its end result, and therefore, for succeeding activities. The light ones show that some sections of the system have ideas about the activities but that these ideas carry little or no weight. The model highlights a number of points. For example, the highly specialised and technical nature of the activities of the planners is conveyed by the heavy dotted lines going to such activities as devising a range of plans, devising programmes, and evaluating actual outcomes. The importance of the line officials comes through clearly, too, in that all the lines emanating from their position in the organisation are heavy ones. The comparative unimportance of the general public, parents, teachers and pupils is also illustrated, despite the fact that the last three are, together, responsible for the final achievements of the system in the form of learning and changes in behaviour on the part of the pupils. These groups carry out their own monitoring and have, as a consequence, their own ideas of the strengths and defects of the system, but these ideas do not get into the decision-making machinery directly with any momentum of their own. They go up through the organisation along the normal channels. Figure 5, read in this way, is a summary of what has already been said.

It is, however, more than this, because the dotted lines can be interpreted also as lines of involvement in the decisions constituting the activities of the planning process. The heavy ones indicate participation in these decisions, the light ones sources of possible contributions, which are occasionally tapped by means of consultation. The experts in the general population provide an example. As well, a number of dotted lines, heavy or light, converging on the same activity indicate where conflicts may emerge because perceptions of what is required may vary, and therefore, also, where action may be necessary to obtain some measure of consensus if decisions concerning the activity are to be made at all. For example, monitoring outcomes and defining the problem are activities on which many lines converge. It is possible that for some of

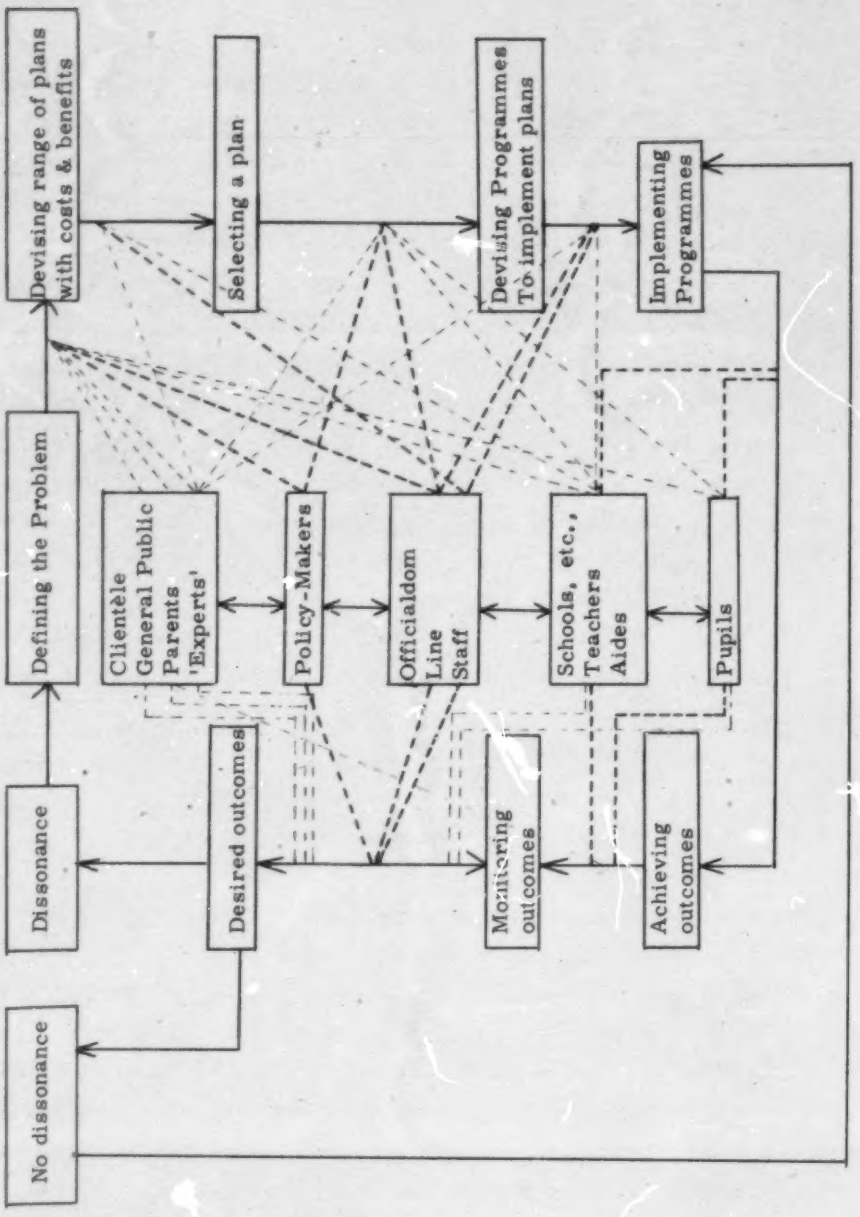


Figure 5. Relationships between organisational levels and the stages of planning

the groups doing the monitoring, there is no dissonance between actual and desired outcomes and, therefore no problem to be defined. Others may perceive dissonance but define the problem differently. Then again, if the lines converging on two successive activities do not lead back to the same origins in the organisation, they point to problems of control, direction and persuasion, because if a lower level in the system has not contributed to decisions concerning the nature of its own activities, there may not be forthcoming the degree of application required to execute the activity efficiently. Here again, some measure of agreement would seem to be preferable to direction. The one double-headed arrow in the model joins the monitoring process and desired outcomes, indicating that these outcomes are not only the source of criteria used in the monitoring process but are, themselves, subject to review from time to time. And the dotted lines to this arrow show that all members of the organisation, as well as its clientèle, have ideas on what these desired outcomes ought to be. The light ones indicate that the ideas of teachers and of the clientèle have little, if any influence on the nature of these objectives.

Two terms have been used for aspects of involvement in the planning process, namely, consultation and participation. They should be distinguished from each other. Consultation is a process whereby members and other interested parties are invited to contribute to the determination of the nature of the decisions but the extent to which their contributions are taken into account is decided by those initiating the consultation. Those consulted, though responsible for the quality of their advice, are not responsible for the final decision. They do not know for sure if, or the extent to which, their contributions have coloured the outcome. Consultation is informal, ad hoc and recognised as a concession by both sides involved in it. Participation is a process of argument, debate and persuasion about a decision, culminating typically in a vote for or against a particular decision. Those who participate can be held accountable for the decision, whether they have voted against it or not. Participants know the extent of the influence they have exercised. Participation normally requires formal procedures and is written into these procedures as a right rather than a privilege. Both consultation and participation have long been recognised as means for obtaining consensus about action to be taken. Complete agreement to any specific course of action in such a difficult field as education is probably too much to be hoped for, but consultation and participation go some way, at least, to ensuring acceptance of the final decision, and to an understanding of the reasons underlying the decision.

Figure 5 shows where consensus is required in the planning process and where, therefore, consultation and participation are appropriate. It shows, for instance, the different groups, inside and outside the organisation, who are watching and judging what the system is achieving and, as a result, coming to their own conclusions about what is needed. The tendency has been to dismiss many of these diagnoses as being based on an inadequate knowledge not only of the facts, but also of practicable solutions, and because many of them are contradictory authority figures are not encouraged to pay much regard to them. Only experts, it is claimed, have all the relevant data, the manipulative skills to order that data and the interpretative skills to relate possible courses to their ranges of likely outcomes. These experts may consult some of the more

knowledgeable groups and are satisfied that the bulk of the remainder are brought into the deliberative process through the contributions of the policy-makers, albeit indirectly, and as interpreted by them. Planning, it is claimed, has to be a rational, objective, disinterested process involving the careful collection and weighing of facts and has no place for irrelevancies such as opinions (sic) based on sectional interests, partial views and inadequate data. Consensus, if it is important, will be an effect of the plan itself for, so it is thought, reasonable people will accept it when they note its logic, and come to appreciate that it favours no one section of the community, but has been devised in the long-term interests of all. People who fail to see these qualities are almost by definition, unreasonable, selfish - or ignorant - and may, therefore, be logically ignored. They may be none of these things but merely perceiving the plan from the only point of view they have, their own, and with no willfulness in mind at all. They have their own notions of costs and benefits, just as the planner has his and the rationality claimed for the planning process demands that these other costs and benefits be taken into account as data.

The social context for which the planning is being done is immensely complex, and emotions, feelings and values attaching to and deriving from positions in it, and contributing powerfully to perceptions and interpretations of it, are social facts worthy of the most earnest consideration by anyone who would intervene in that context, with the intention of changing it. That the change is claimed to be for the better, does not justify it. Planning, to be fully rational, has to take these other sets of costs and benefits into account, and concern itself more with the conditions in which some consensus amongst them becomes possible. That consensus is better built up in the course of planning itself than left to be achieved after the plan is completed and published. Publication of a plan, even if the claim is made that it is only provisional, means that there is a strong interest in making as few alterations as possible in it, and yet it draws out a mass of data, usually objections, which ought to have been generated before the plan was completed. No one sees the effects a plan will have on himself more accurately than the person concerned, and no one can tell more quickly that the plan is not having the promised benefits for himself than the person who had been led to expect them.

A theory of planning, which starts off from a definition in terms of rationality, seems to lead inevitably to the conclusion that consultation with, and participation by, those to be affected by the plan, are necessary processes in it. When it is planning for education that is the planning under consideration, such a conclusion seems even more justified. Educational theory has long stressed the importance of having the learner participate in his own learning, in the sense of having him help determine his own goals, the nature of the experiences that will lead him to these goals, and the pace at which he will proceed. Practice has lagged behind theory in this as in much else in education, but the gap is at last beginning to narrow. The rationality which is claimed to underlie the planning process would seem to point to the need for consistency between ends and means. A planning process which is authoritarian in nature, or which provides for pseudo- rather for genuine participation, is incompatible with an educational process which values participation. In educational planning, the stress is on the adjective and not the noun.

The educational potential of planning is realisable through consultation and, even more efficaciously, through participation, processes on which education is beginning, itself, to depend so greatly. A writer [9] on planning has stated recently that, "it is not completely clear how profound concepts such as freedom and social justice can be realized through planning." The best answer would seem to be that they are effects of involvement in the process of planning itself, rather the achievements of a plan.

Some Drawbacks to Participation and Consultation

Planners and administrators are reasonable people in the main, working earnestly in the interests of the system as they see them. Why is it that consultation and participation are not more characteristic of their work? A number of reasons can be suggested: Normally, because of the demands of the political system which they service, planners and administrators are working under extreme pressure. Time schedules have to be met and, at the same time, they have to be ready to answer questions which may arise at any time about any part of the system. Participation and consultation are time-consuming exercises. Most administrators would hold too, that in their experience, consulting with others has not been very productive. Little additional information has come their way as a result of it. It has, therefore, been from their point of view, so much time wasted. This would be the experience of head teachers as school administrators as well as of officials as system administrators. Their greater knowledge of how school and system function, and the greater quantity of information that flows to them, enable them to anticipate the kind of difficulty others in the system are likely to raise, to provide explanations for them and to support their own points of view more cogently. Because they have the broader view, they can often show, for example, that acceptance of a suggestion made by one sectional interest will cause difficulties for other sectional interests not present at the discussion. Not infrequently, those consulted seem, in their own eyes, to be less well prepared for the discussions than those consulting them - a result of the lack of time they have had to prepare their advice, of the inadequacy of their data base compared with that of those consulting them, and of their more limited view of the organisation. Lack of time for preparation of advice is important. Advice of quality cannot be given on the basis of experience alone. That experience has to be examined and the consequences of advice thought through. This is not a normal part of the task of teachers, say, and time has to be found for it. That time has to come out of that usually allocated to other pursuits - leisure, correction and so on.

Participation has also been shown to have its drawbacks. From the point of view of the administrators, it has seemed to strike at the roots of their responsibilities for running the system and to require sharing their power with others who do not have those

---

9/ McKinnon, K.R., Realistic Educational Planning, Fundamentals of Educational Planning Series, No. 20, IIEP, Paris, 1973.

responsibilities. [10] Because organizations in which participation has been tried have tended to be large ones, only representatives of other sections, and of the clientèle, can realistically be involved in final decisions. These representatives, as a result of their experiences in the participatory process, seem to become different from those whom they represent. For example, they have to accept responsibility for a decision which may not be acceptable to all those whom they represent and they are often placed in the position of defending that decision before their electorate. They seem, then, to identify more with the decision than with the interests of their electors. In seeking to defend the decision, they may use information which was not available to their electors, that is, they make themselves sound like the administrators, and more easily develop the broader view associated with them, based, of course, on the greater amount of information that begins to come their way because they are part of the organization's decision-making machinery. Those who are represented may feel, too, that this fact prevents them from opposing the decisions arrived at in the way they might have done, had they not been represented. They feel, paradoxically, that their freedom has been restricted by participation. Experience with the participatory system may lead them to regret the passing of the adversary one it has replaced, and to feel, perhaps, that participation is a more effective means of manipulating them into accepting the administrator's view.

A major cause of such failures is to be traced to the lack of equality of access to relevant information. Participation cannot be expected to work if some of the participants have more information than others. Another cause is failure to understand that this information will be interpreted differently, by personnel from different parts of the system and that it is these differences in interpretation that the true participatory system is designed to handle in the sense of producing the greatest degree of overlap amongst them. Participatory systems evolved with the purpose of getting members from the different sections of the organization to adopt the same view, will end by destroying the variety which should be their strength. The purpose of participation should be to bring these natural differences to the surface and find, by argument and debate, the greatest degree to which they can be reconciled, in the interests of reaching a decision most will feel able to accept. The information participants need includes the likely effects decisions may have on different parts of the organization, and on its clientèle. To divert the system to training out these differences of view is to undermine it: representatives will, then, deserve the accusations made against them that they have been manipulated, that they have become different, that they have succumbed to the blandishments of the administrators. A participatory system must start from the acceptance of the legitimacy of differences in perception of what is going on now and of what is projected for the future. It must face frankly, in other words, the fact that, because the seat of these differences is in the complex of differing expectations surrounding members occupying different areas of organisational space, they are valid, and to some

---

[10] Macbeath, I., Perspectives on Participation: Where the Conflicts Lie, The Times, London, 1 October 1973.

extent unavoidable. The extent to which they are unavoidable is a function of the effectiveness of the information processes in the organization and it is because much of the power of the administrator and planner derives from their control of these processes, that they are reluctant to open them up fully to others. Their reluctance, too, is explicable in terms of the expectations operating on them in their area of organisational space, that is, their responsibilities for the efficiency of the organization as a whole. If things go wrong, they are held accountable and, what is more, feel themselves to be at fault for allowing the defect to develop and manifest itself. They prefer, then, to keep hold of as much information as is necessary for them to control the organization. A consultative system does just this, and this explains, perhaps, its greater attraction for them. A participatory system, to be a success, depends on the administrator's being prepared to share the information on which his power is based.

To administrative reluctance to accept participation, has to be added political reluctance, which is equally well-founded given present circumstances. The national government's responsibility for giving legislative effect to the programme on which it was elected cannot be impeded by a decision-making structure specially designed for education, as can happen if that structure has a different political complexion from the government's.[11/] Governmental responsibility for allocating resources amongst the competing claims of different services, of which education is only one, means that the size of the educational purse if politically determined. Education cannot generate funds of its own, sufficient for its purposes, by charging for the services it renders and remains hugely dependent on public money. A decision-making structure for education which does not finance itself has little real autonomy and is captive within the political sphere. Education, too, tends not to be a major issue in the sense that it makes and unmakes governments, so the importance the parties attach to it is not great and the priority they accord legislation concerning it, is not high. Governments are not likely willingly to set in train arrangements which will strengthen pressures they presently regard as weak. If they created a participative structure for educational decision-making these pressures would undoubtedly be channelled into it and could no longer be ignored to the same extent, because they would have been legitimised by being introduced through a government created agency.

Those who would advocate participatory systems within which educational planning would be prosecuted, must recognise the powerful forces which will tend to oppose them and those who would construct such systems must pay heed to the weaknesses that have been exposed in those that have been tried in industry and in other fields of activity. Certain strengths have been revealed as well. Participation has strengthened morale and has build up commitment to the goals and plans of the organisation.[12/] Personal relationships have improved between people at

---

11/ This was the heart of the case put forward by the Minister of Education, Queensland, in 1970, against the Queensland Teachers' Union's proposals for an Education Commission. See footnote 3.

12/ Author's experience in operating a participatory planning system for the development of technical education in Fife, Scotland during the earlier half of the 1960's and for the development of Kedron Park Teachers' College, Brisbane, in 1972-1973.

different levels of the organisation. Experience of successful consultation has led authority figures to concede some of their power and to move to a limited participatory system. In education, for example, this has taken the form of involving teachers in decisions about the curriculum,[13] and pupils in decisions about extra-curricular activities.[14] Where this has been judged to be successful, the range of decisions in which teachers have been involved has been extended until they have become members of the education authorities themselves,[15] contributing to all their decisions, and pupils, in their turn, have been made members of school governing boards.[16] Experience of unsuccessful consultation has led those who have felt that the value of their advice has been discounted, to press for participation as of right.[17]

Indeed, the process of involvement, once started, seems to develop a momentum of its own and move inevitably by stages to full participation. It is an educational experience for all involved in it and, if the result is not the voluntary sharing of power by those who have always had it with those who have not, then it is brought about by militant action on the part of the latter.[18] The progression from stage to stage, or the demand that this should happen, is helped along by the education system itself. As the educational levels of organizational members have been raised, so their desire has grown for a bigger and bigger say in the decisions affecting their lives. This appears to be equally true of the community at large and explains some of the dissatisfaction being expressed with a democratic system which allows them to vote only

---

13/ Educational reform introduced in Queensland at the beginning of the 1970's under which the examinations at the end of the secondary stage were altered from externally set and marked to internally set and assessed, with a system of State-wide moderation to ensure comparability. Subject Advisory Committees, consisting mainly of teachers, recommended course content but schools were free, if they wished to develop their own.

14/ General practice in schools in for example, the United Kingdom and the United States of America, for some years.

15/ The Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1964, made it possible for teachers to be co-opted to the Education Committees which employed them. Not all authorities, however, brought teachers into such membership.

16/ Several local education authorities in England have altered the articles of government applying to their schools to include pupil governors elected by the body of pupils attending the schools.

17/ Scottish teachers pressed for this right during the early 1960's when the government of the day seemed to be threatening to dilute the profession by introducing a three-year diploma course for men, the successful completion of which would have qualified men to teach in primary schools. Teacher protest persuaded the government to set up several working groups to examine a wide range of teacher grievances. The work of one of these groups resulted in the setting up of the General Teaching Council which gave teachers control over their own profession with the Secretary of State having some reserve powers to safeguard the public interest.

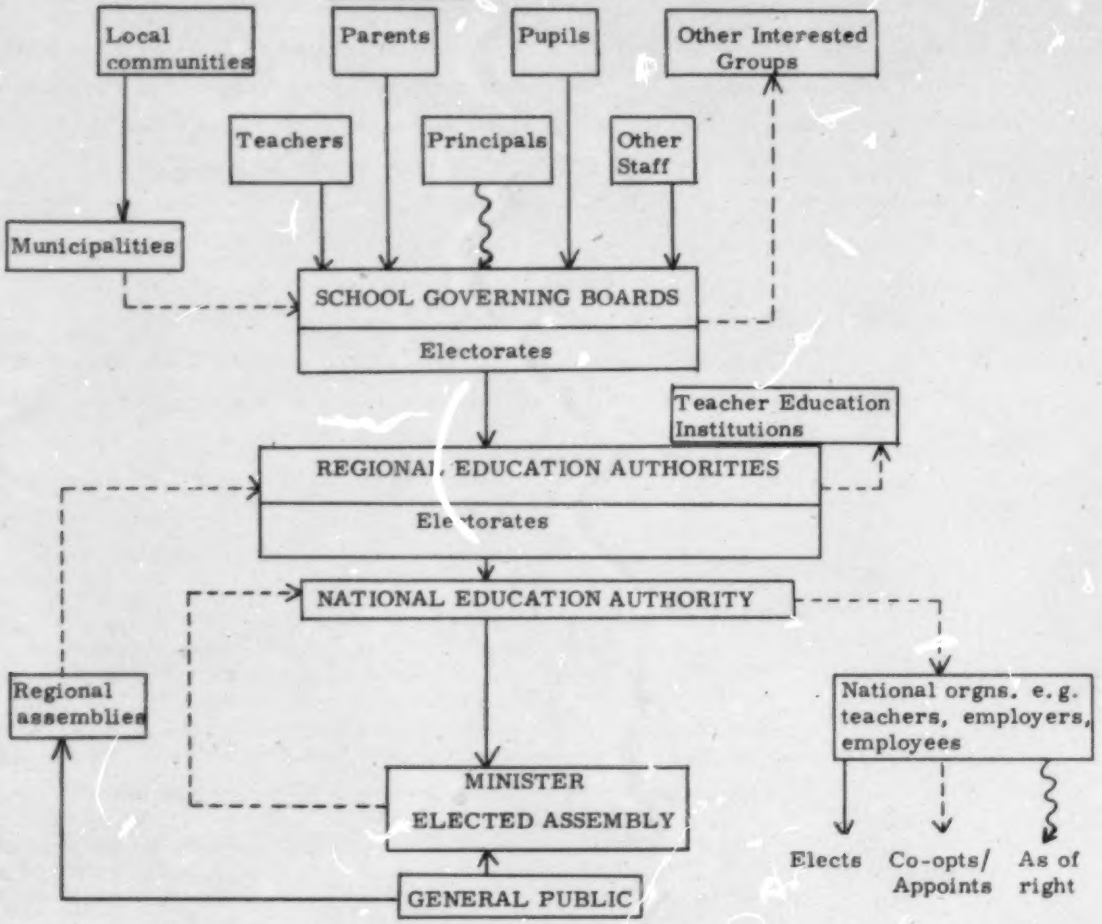
18/ Stenberg, C.W., Citizens and the Administrative State: from Participation to Power, Public Administrative Review, XXXII, 3, May/June 1972.

infrequently and at long intervals apart.[19] Education, too, is one of the areas in which ordinary people feel they can contribute more than they are presently permitted to do.[20] The reluctance of educational policy-makers, administrators and planners to accept the inevitability of this development, despite the fact that it results largely from the excellence of their own work, has been the main stumbling block.

A Participative Structure for Discussion

A structure which has possibilities for development into one answering most of the points raised in the analysis, is offered in Figure 6.

Figure 6. A Participative Structure for Educational Policy, Administration and Planning



19/ Crowther-Hunt, Lord and Peacock, A., Minority of The Royal Commission on the British Constitution, H.M.S.O., London, 1973.

20/ Ibid.

The model starts from the school, each of which has a governing board comprised of elected representatives of teachers, parents and pupils to which municipalities and district councils, whichever is appropriate, appoints additional members.[21/] The board, at this stage, co-opts representatives from other interested groups, such as a member of staff from a local university. The different categories of members of all the governing boards in a region can now be regarded as forming different electorates,[22/] each one of which proceeds to elect one of its members to a regional education authority. The elected regional assembly, if there is one, then appoints members to this authority, and elected and appointed members then co-opt a member of staff from the teacher-training institution serving the region. If there are more than one of these institutions, then their staffs can be invited to elect one of themselves for the authority to co-opt. The members of the regional authorities can now be seen as forming constituencies for the election of the membership of the national education authority, to whose numbers the national elected assembly would appoint some of its own members. Thus constituted, the national education authority co-opts additional members from national bodies which have an interest in education. Each stage of this structure is interlocked with every other one through its membership and the educational community general public and special publics are brought in by election, appointment or co-optation. Meetings of these different bodies would, as a general rule, be open to the public and the press but some matters like the appointment and promotion of staff might be better conducted in private.

The Minister would refer policy matters to the national education authority for advice on how the policies might be effected and on their possible consequences. In his annual report to the national assembly, the Minister would have to recount the matters which had been so referred, the advice received and offer an explanation for any departures from that advice.[23/] Planning would be a matter for consultation between Minister and national authority. He would be the custodian of what the public had indicated they wanted but, within this, the national education authority

---

21/ This is derived from current practice in some local education authorities in England. See footnote 16.

22/ This is based on the practice in Scotland for the election of teachers to the Governing Boards of Colleges of Education. In each region, the primary school teachers form a constituency for the election of one of their members, secondary school teachers form another constituency, primary school head teachers another and so on. The actual elections are arranged and conducted by the Colleges.

23/ The Secretary of State for Scotland must account in this way for his actions on the advice given him by the General Teaching Council. See footnote 17. The advice, in this instance, refers to such matters as the supply, qualifications and training, and recognition of teachers for purposes of registration.

would look to the priorities and the means and would advise accordingly. Planning would, in practice start there because overall, guiding principles would emerge from this consultation. Each school board would be responsible, within this framework, for planning its own future and indicating its own priorities based on its assessment of local conditions and needs.[24] The regional authorities would combine these school plans into a regional one and, where modifications were judged to be necessary, would discuss them with the school board concerned. Regional plans would be combined into a national plan using the same consultative procedures as regional authority and school board. At national assembly level, the educational plan would take its place along with plans produced by other government services. At this stage, too, the method by which adjustments would be made would be consultation, leaving the final decision about where, say, a cut had to be made, to the originators of the plan.[25]

A national education authority created in this way would be an extremely influential body, whose advice the Minister would have to have very good reasons for rejecting. Regional authorities, thus constituted, would also carry much weight, drawn as they would be, from people knowledgeable about what was happening at the grass-roots of the system. The rights of the government are preserved by first making the structure a source of advice for the Minister and second, the vehicle for deriving and implementing plans. Freedom for the individual school and teacher, within the limits of the resources allocated, would be assured by giving a significant proportion of the funds needed to the school for spending on the implementation of its own plan.[26] The government and the national education authority would be concerned with devising and stipulating minimum standards and regional authorities and school governing boards with attaining or exceeding these.[27] No planning decisions would be taken till they had been discussed with those who were to be affected by them and any representations they made taken into account.

24/ The I.L.E.A.'s 'Alternative Use of Resources Scheme' operates on such a principle, although at this stage in the scheme's development the plans are produced by head teachers and staff and reported only to the school governing board.

25/ This method of deriving a national plan from regional and local plans is a development of the system used in France for its Sixth Plan, and of that recommended by the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools' Commission as the way in which the Commission might operate in the future.

26/ The suggestion here is not a new one, by any means. Scottish schools, for example, have operated in this way for many years. See also footnote 24 regarding the I.L.E.A.

27/ This is the division of responsibility between central and local government in the educational field.

Insisting that meetings be open to the public and the press, as the national assembly is, would go some way towards keeping the public informed of what was being done in its name and of ensuring accountability. There are few better ways of getting responsible contributions to debate, and carefully thought out advice from officials, than by having the press present. The different publics would also be kept informed through regular reports by their representatives, and such reporting would be a necessary part of their duties.[28/] This accounting would arise anyway as they sought re-election but this kind of reporting is often too late and is certainly too infrequent. A ready made consultative machinery would be immediately available for the Minister's use, or for use by the Chairmen of regional authorities, in that way, all the parent members of school governing boards,[29/] or any of the other categories of members, could be called together to get a reaction to a proposal that was of special concern to them. This would be supplementary to the normal discussions that would go on between the Minister, say, and the teachers' organizations.

Much of the work of the planner would continue to be the highly technical function of collecting, analysing and interpreting data but the results would now be fed to the level of the structure concerned - board, regional or national authority. The planner would be more involved in creating the conditions in which those affected by the plans and having the responsibility to carry them out, could plan effectively themselves. Plans produced in this way, from hard data skillfully assembled by experts and interpreted by those who know local conditions in the context of national guidelines, would be more easily incorporated into a national plan. Educational planning would have begun to be educational.

Little has been said about the detailed responsibilities of the different levels in the structure. It is not proposed to enter this field because there are no doubt many ways in which the different tasks could be allocated and much would depend on local conditions. However, the principle underlying the allocation must be to give as much responsibility as possible to the lowest level in the structure. The question to be asked is - is there any good reason why a school governing board could not make this or that category of decision. Justification has to be produced for taking a decision higher up the structure. Nothing has been said about the numbers from any 'interest' to be represented at each stage - this again would be the subject for experiment - but the guiding principle recommended is that no interest should have a majority over the other interests, so that debate and discussion would be forced on them all if they wished to carry their point. Reconciliation of different points of view through argument and discussion is the objective, and not through weight of numbers.

28/ Parent governors in some London schools e.g. Haverstock School, have accepted this as a necessary part of their duties.

29/ I.L.E.A. officials have already used the parent governors of their schools as a consultative body in the way suggested here.

There is, of course, another level in the structure about which little has been said. It is the most important level of all - the classroom, where the real work of the system goes on. The intention behind this entire exercise is to develop an administrative-planning structure which, through its concern for involvement and responsibility and its sensitivity to the needs of those whom it is supposed to serve, will improve the chances that the teaching/learning situation will be characterised by these same qualities. By insisting, for example, that the schools are allocated cash to spend and do not have it spent on their behalf be some other part of the system, the chances are increased that head teachers will involve their teachers in the actual spending decisions.[30/] Having to account for the expenditure of public money is a sound way of forcing head teachers, if they have not already been convinced, to think in terms of lightening their burden of responsibility by sharing it with their teacher colleagues. This means, in turn, that teachers have got to know what they want and to have thought about their reasons for wanting it. There is a strong tendency for teachers who are involved in a participatory process of this kind, to adopt similar practices with their pupils.[31/]

A politico-administrative-planning system is only as good as the people who man it. It can be devised in such a way that it is easier for the people in it to behave in accordance with the values underlying it, than in other ways that are open to them. Recent happenings[32/] in the United States of America and in the United Kingdom, involving both elected members and officials, illustrates that even the most complex system of checks and balances developed out of the experience of centuries can be thwarted if the will is lacking on the part of those with responsibilities in the structure, to make it work. These events illustrate, also, the importance of the press and the public playing their part, that is the importance of public scrutiny and public concern.[33/]

30/ The I.L.E.A. 'A.U.R.' scheme has already had this effect. See footnote 24.

31/ Research on the Organisational Development of schools undertaken by Professor P. Runkel and others at the Centre for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon points strongly to this desirable outcome.

32/ The affairs alluded to here have become known as the Watergate Affair (U.S.A.) and the Poulson Affair (U.K.).

33/ The Washington Post is credited with having investigated and reported the circumstances surrounding the 'break-in' at the Democratic Party's headquarters in the Watergate Building with such care and in such detail that the Federal Legal Department could no longer ignore it. Similarly, the publicity given the relationships between the architect, John Poulson, and a high government servant in Scotland, and with local elected councillors in the north of England led to the Prime Minister setting up a committee to report on the need for a code of conduct for elected members and officials, and to make recommendations as to its contents, if the need for it was thought to be great.

Apathetically leaving things to the experts is no answer. It seems appropriate to look to participation in educational planning and policy as a means of fostering an informed concern which might spill over into the wider range of social policy and planning. Education, it has to be remembered is a relatively slow, cumulative process and if the educational potential inherent in the participatory planning of education is only slowly realised, this is in its very nature. Speedy results are unlikely. The answer, however, is not to abandon it but to subject it to evaluation and monitoring as would be done with the planned implementation of any other policy.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

An Education Commission, a booklet produced by the Queensland Teachers' Union, Brisbane.

Castle, Barbara, Mandarin Power, Sunday Times, London, 10 June 1973.

Crowther-Hunt, Lord and Peacock, A., Minority of The Royal Commission on the British Constitution, H.M.S.O., London, 1973.

Foster, C.D., Politics, finance and the rôle of economics, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1971.

Macbeath, I., Perspectives on Participation: Where the Conflicts Lie, The Times, London, 1 October 1973.

McKinnon, K.R., Realistic Educational Planning, Fundamentals of Educational Planning Series, No. 20, IIEP, Paris, 1973.

Ornstein, A.C., Administrative/community Organisation of Metropolitan Schools, Phi Delta Kappan, June, 1973.

Reimer, E., The School is Dead, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middx., England, 1971.

Stenberg, C.W., Citizens and the Administrative State: from Participation to Power, Public Administrative Review, XXXII, 3, May/June 1972.

Teacher Participation, a pamphlet produced by the National Union of Teachers in England.

OCCASIONAL PAPER No. 36 examines the separation of planning activities from administration and analyses the interrelationships between planning and policy-making within the educational enterprise. The paper investigates in some detail the relationships between organizational levels and the stages of planning and shows where consensus is required in the planning process and where consultation and participation are appropriate. The author puts forward some suggestions as to why consultation and participation are not more characteristic in the work of planners and he proposes a model structure for educational policy, administration and planning.

MACRAE C. GRASSIE, M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D., wrote this paper during his stay as a Visiting Fellow at the IIEP in March/April 1974. He is now Dean, Faculty of Education, University of Queensland, Australia.